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THE ROLE OF THE COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAM IN THE SOLUTION OF RURAL YOUTH MANPOWER PROBLEMS.

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SUBSTANTIAL POVERTY IN RURAL AREAS HAS BEEN CAUSED BY UNEMPLOYMENT DUE TO THE TECHNOLOGICAL REVOLUTION WHICH HAS MECHANIZED AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATIONS WHICH HAVE BEEN THE EXCLUSIVE DOMAIN OF THE FARM LABORER. A WELL-ORGANIZED COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAM PROVIDES A MEANS OF EFFECTIVELY COMBATING THE RATE OF UNEMPLOYMENT WHICH IS ESPECIALLY HIGH AMONG YOUTH. SUGGESTIONS FOR A COMPREHENSIVE COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAM INCLUDE--(1) AN INFORMATION CENTER TO DISSEMINATE INFORMATION CONCERNING EDUCATIONAL AND EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES, (2) A PERIODICALLY UPDATED SURVEY OF COMMUNITY, INDIVIDUAL, AND INDUSTRIAL NEEDS, (3) A REFERRAL SERVICE TO PLACE THE INDIVIDUAL IN THE JOB FOR WHICH HE IS BEST PREPARED, OR TO REFER HIM TO THE PROPER PROGRAM FOR FURTHER TRAINING, (4) A COMPREHENSIVE VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAM IN SUCH AREAS AS AGRICULTURE AND RURAL NON-FARM OCCUPATIONS WHICH ARE DEVELOPING ON RURAL FRINGES OF URBAN AREAS, (5) A JOB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM TO ENCOURAGE LOCAL EMPLOYERS TO INITIATE THEIR OWN SPECIALIZED TRAINING PROGRAMS, (6) AN ON-THE-JOB TRAINING PROGRAM FOR YOUTH WHO ARE UNABLE TO RETURN TO SCHOOL, AND, (7) A MULTI-COUNTY PROGRAM IN REGIONS WHERE THE SPARSE POPULATION WOULD RENDER LOCAL PROGRAMS IMPRACTICAL. (DA)

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THE ROLE OF THE COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAM IN THE SOLUTION OF RURAL YOUTH MANPOWER PROBLEMS

Youth is generally defined as that segment of the population between the ages of 15 and 24. This definition includes 24 million persons, or 13.4 per cent of the population. Of this number, 7.5 million are rural and 1.8 million of the rural segment are farm youth. In many ways the manpower problem of rural youth differs from that of urban youth, and it is to this point that this paper speaks. First, however, it is necessary to get an overview of the youth manpower problem.

BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

In 1965, 550,000 teenagers entered the labor force. This was three times the average increase of the preceding four years and constituted 40 per cent of the labor force growth. In addition, the employment of youth age 20-24 increased by 400,000. As a result, the unemployment rate for teenagers dropped from 14.5 per cent to 13.1 per cent for males and from 15 per cent to 14.3 per cent for females. Nevertheless, teenage unemployment still remained the largest category of unemployment by far. In the 20-24 age group unemployment dropped from 8.1 per cent to 6.3 per cent for males and from 8.6 per cent to 7.3 per cent for females. This was still almost double the national average at that time.

The problem is further complicated by the fact that, during the next several years, the number reaching the age of 18 will be 3½ million annually or over 700,000 more than 1964, which was a very high year. The employment prospects worsen when it is noted that ¾ of the male teenage increase in employment in 1965 was in jobs as operatives or laborers which require little or no skill. Also, the biggest increase in jobs for males in the 20-24 group was as operatives. However, the 1966 Manpower Report of the President points out that occupations as laborers will decline in actual numbers by 200,000 between 1965 and 1975. While the operative category will increase in numbers, the total is relatively small and represents the smallest percentage increase of any of the occupations showing increases between 1965 and 1975. This means that most youth face the prospect of seeking employment in the occupations which will expand the most between now and 1975 or the professional, technical, white collar, and service categories. With the exception of some service categories, these are occupations which most often require more than the usual high school diploma. However, as late as

1963, there were more than 6.7 million out-of-school youth in the 16-21 age bracket and more than 45 per cent of them had less than four years of high school. Of those with less than high school, ¼ had no more than 8th grade educations and ⅔ had less than tenth grade.

Turning more specifically to the rural segment of the manpower problem, the effects of the technological revolution on the farm have been well documented. While the decline in numbers of farmers and farm laborers in the workforce will lessen between 1965 and 1975, there will still be a reduction of 800,000 in this category. Further, it is expected that only one in ten farm boys who come of working age in the 1960's will be able to own and operate a farm of sufficient size to make a living.

Thus, the technological revolution on the farm has doubtless served as the base for substantial poverty in rural areas. Based on OEO guide lines and the 1960 census, an internal document of the Department of Agriculture indicated that, of the 16 million persons thought to be in poverty, almost half of them were in rural areas. Of this number, at least 1.8 million youth in the 16-21 age group were included. Further, due to the age and education of the family head, the Department of Agriculture estimated that over one million families were "boxed in" with no place to go for relief. In addition, another 1.75 million rural non-farm families were considered to be "boxed-in" for the same reasons. Finally, there were 49,000 heads of farm families who were 25 years of age or less and 50 per cent of them had an 8th grade education or less.

Based on the above, it is not surprising that unemployment rates are consistently higher for farm people. This causes the farm person to turn to one of two alternatives. The first is to stay in the rural area and seek non-farm employment. From this standpoint, it is worth noting that while farm employment dropped 34 per cent during the 1950's, the rural population hardly declined. In addition, while there was a 23 per cent increase in non-agricultural employment in urban areas during the 1950's, there was a **19 per cent increase in non-agricultural employment in rural areas!** For many, particularly the rural youth, the first alternative has not been available or desirable. This leads to the second alternative and a major complicating factor in the manpower problem of rural youth — migration!

The large percentages of youth and the small percentages of ages 20-45 in rural areas compared to urban is evidence of a continuing pattern of migration. Nevertheless, there is strong evidence that rural youth make every effort to remain within commuting distance of their rural homes. For example, in a study made by Michigan State professors Beegle and Rice (for the National Committee for Children and Youth), it was clearly established

that while rural youth in the 15-19 age bracket are over-represented in comparison to those in urban areas in all geographical areas of the nation, males in this bracket are actually under-represented in areas which are 50 miles or less from a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. The reverse of this is true in communities which are 50-150 miles from such an area. This would seem to indicate that knowledge of job opportunities, better education and training opportunities, and the short distance from the home environment is correlated positively with migration. The opposite situation is true for rural youth in the 20-24 age bracket. Although generally under-represented in comparison with urban areas, they are significantly over-represented in areas 50 miles or less from a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. Yet from 50 to 200 miles away, they are substantially under-represented. This would appear to indicate that many of the youth in the latter areas had finished school and then decided to migrate upon reaching the age of 20. Conversely, the high percentages near the metropolitan area may indicate that more job opportunities are available, thus enabling the person in the 20-24 age bracket to farm and supplement his income or else turn to non-agricultural pursuits entirely while continuing to live in his home area. In both cases, it appears that most rural youth desire to remain in or near their home area for as long a period as possible.

That the alternatives suggested above are not always equally available was indicated in a study by Professor George S. Trolly of North Carolina State College[1] in which employment in outlying counties (defined as a county having no town of 50,000 population or touching such a county) grew only 1 per cent during the 1950's compared with 15 per cent for the national average. Further, around farm areas those industries that are attracted are usually large employers of women and/or contain a number of jobs for which the farm male has little training. Thus, it is not surprising that there is an annual heavy outmigration, particularly from the outlying counties, which has been totaling 250,000 in recent years.

Professor Bishop's study also indicated the effect of continued outmigration of farm youth on the rural youth manpower problem. For example, less than half of those on the farm in 1960 (in the age group 15-24) will still be there in 1970 in the North Central or the Northeast regions. In the West, only one in three would remain, and only one of five in the South. Thus, if the estimated farm migration of 2 million males during the 1960's becomes a reality, it would deplete the rural population by 8 million persons if not offset by an expansion in non-agricultural employment. This would approximate a 15 per cent decline in rural population. While, theoretically, one can draw

[1] (See **Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myths, and Social Change,** U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfart, pp. 257-71.)

finite positive conclusions from such a prediction, the reality of history indicates a worsening of the manpower problem generally in a declining community and an upheaval of social and economic problems (with manpower being basic) in the form of increased slums, increased unemployment and heavy pressures for crash job-related education and training programs. Thus, the sword of alternatives has two sharp edges, both of which must be dulled if the rural youth manpower problem is to be solved.

THE COMPONENTS OF THE PROBLEM

Given the background just discussed, a number of general components of the problem can be summarized. They are:

1. Youth are entering the labor force at ever increasing numbers.

2. Youth generally continue to experience the greatest rates of unemployment.

3. There will continue to be both a real and percentage decline in jobs requiring little or no skill.

4. There is an urgent need for education and training beyond the usual high school degree.

5. Rural youth, in general, have a much lower level of education and training than urban youth.

6. There will be a continued decline of farm opportunities for rural youth.

7. The fact that very large numbers of rural families are "boxed in" has contributed to the disproportion of poverty in rural areas.

8. A geographical difference in migration patterns has developed largely based on knowledge of and/or actual existence of non-agricultural job opportunities.

9. A particular problem of employment opportunity exists (agricultural or non-agricultral) in outlying counties.

10. Rural out-migration has a real effect on the urban manpower problem.

The summary of the general components of the problem immediately bring to mind some needs and possible approaches to the solution of the general problem. It is here that specific components of the problem are discovered. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the totality of the problem be-

fore developing a framework for the solution. Thus, the specific components to be considered are:

1. In general, education and vocational training facilities in rural areas are far from adequate.

2. Despite heavy out-migration, there is still relatively little emphasis in rural vocational programs on non-agricultural related employment.

3. The existence of untrained labor has a negative effect on the community ability to attract non-agricultural industry.

4. Local rural communities, generally, are not capable of financing needed general and vocational education.

5. The spacial problem makes it difficult for rural youth to obtain knowledge of jobs in distant communities.

6. Services in general, are inadequate in rural communities, especially in guidance and counselling, and post high school programs are practically non-existant in most communities. Consequently, little is known of the interest, abilities, and aptitudes of rural youth.

7. Their background and environment have generally put rural youth at a disadvantage when seeking employment in an urban environment.

8. Even when needed programs exist, the geographical problem has hampered the identification of the specific and individual needs and potentials of all rural youth.

FEDERAL LEGISLATION RELATED TO THE PROBLEM

Before establishing a Community Action framework, it behooves a community to have, at least, a brief acquaintance with the existing legislation which might contribute to the solution of the problem. Space will permit only a cursory treatment of some of the major federal legislation and no discussion of state and local possibilities. However, this brief summary should put the Community Action Program framework in proper perspective. Some of the major legislation possibilities are:

1. **The Manpower Development and Training Act:** This Act and its amendments have been largely related to vocational training. It is now possible for youth as young as 17 to draw training allowances for up to two years. Also, the per cent of the total budget which can be allotted to training of

youth under 22 years of age has been increased to 25 per cent. In 1965, 42 per cent of the institutional trainees were youth under 22, and 39 per cent of the on-the-job trainees. In addition, experimental and demonstration projects are possible as well as a variety of mobility programs.

2. **Other Department of Labor Programs:** Either under MDTA or through its regular bureaus, the Department has a number of additional aids. For example, the Bureau of Employment Security has special youth programs which extend to most of their local offices. A prime example is the Job Opportunity Center. Other special youth job development programs have been created.

3. **Vocational Education Act - 1963:** Among other things, this Act attempts to de-emphasize agricultural and home economic vocational training and provide more of the skills whcih are needed for the jobs developing in the non-agricultural sector. Up to July 1, 1968, one third of a State's allocation, and 25 per cent thereafter, can be used for vocational education for persons who have completed or left high school and who are available for full time study in preparation for entering the labor market. High schools, vocational schools, and even colleges can qualify to administer such programs. In addition, grants are available for area vocational-technical school construction, and 125 were authorized in fiscal year 1965. Finally, work-study programs with cash benefits and experimental, developmental, and pilot programs designed to meet the special vocational needs of youth are available.

4. **Higher Education Facilities Act - 1963:** Education beyond the usual high school diploma is encouraged in the form of grants and loans for the construction of facilities. Twenty-two per cent of the total budget is allocated to public community colleges and technical institutes, and private technical institutes are eligible in the other 78 per cent.

5. **Elementary and Secondary Education Act - 1965:** The possibility of tackling the youth manpower problem in high school exists with this Act. Title I contains more than one billion dollars for grants to strengthen educational programs for disadvantaged children. Under Title II a wide variety of educational materials can be acquired. Finally, Title III allows grants for such services as guidance and counselling, including continuing adult education.

6. **Higher Education Act - 1965**: Under this Act funds are available for helping colleges and universities to provide community services, improve libraries and give financial assistance to students. Not only is work-study

provided for, but also grants of from $200 to $1,000 are available to high school graduates in financial need. Among the other provisions is the inclusion of a National Teacher Corps which could be of immense benefit in rural areas.

7. **The Appalachian Act:** While related to a specific area of the nation, the highway construction and reclamation programs have a direct relation to rural community development and may often be the major link in the chain of programs necessary for problem solution. Recently, the planning and location of vocational schools have been of prime concern to the agency.

8. **The Rural Community Development Service:** This service was recently developed in a Department of Agriculture and, according to one of its internal documents, has the primary mission of facilitating the administration of Federal programs in rural areas and guiding and helping USDA agencies plan and coordinate their rural community development activities. Public information programs, workshops, close coordination with the county Technical Action Panels are a few of the resources to be utlized in an effort to assure rural people of the availability of federal services. The Service has a very strong interest in vocational training of youth.

Finally, the RCDS proposes to develop Community Development Districts whereby municipal and county governments in rural areas can pool their resources for comprehensive planning and action. A typical district may contain two small municipalities, have a radius of fifty miles from the center and have as high as 240,000 in population.

9. **Economic Development Agency:** This is the successor to the Area Redevelopment Agency and has over 3 billion dollars for economic development programs. A major innovation is the introduction of multi-county districts and multi-state regional planning commissions. Starting July 1, 1966, special financial assistance will be given to economic deveopment "centers" contained in these districts.

10. **Economic Opportunity Act:** Popularly referred to as the Poverty Program, this Act contains such features as the Neighborhood Youth Corps, Job Corps, Vista, work-study, and migrant programs, in addition to the Community Action Program. The open-ended possibilities of community action should be kept in mind as Section 205 includes as possibilities programs and services such as "employment job training and counselling, health, vocational rehabilitation, housing, home management, welfare, and special remedial and other non-curricular educational assistance. . . ."

THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF A COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAM

While the legislation is not explicit in the development of this framework, a number of theories must, of necessity, have been implied. Some of the more important ones which a year of administrative experience has made clear to the writer are:

1. Since the purpose of the Act is to reduce poverty, it is difficult to see how this can be accomplished without enhancing income. This implies programs which will make it possible for a person who is unemployed to become employed or for one who is in poverty as a result of underemployment to get a better job. Included, of course, is the removal of whatever obstacles exist which make it impossible for the intended trainee to embark upon the program. Consequently, all CAP programs should, in either the short or long-run, relate to the achievement of this stated objective.

2. Yet, there are a large number of agencies and an even greater number of programs which can relate to this objective.

3. Nevertheless, there are not nearly enough financial resources in the combined budgets to meet all the needs.

4. In addition, the programs that do exist are often completely uncoordinated and duplication of effort is commonplace. Thus, the already insufficient resources are further dissipated.

5. At the same time, it has long been argued that the local community is in the best position to analyze its own problems and to develop solutions — particularly if it is strengthened financially.

6. But even on the local level, there has generally been insufficient knowledge of all of the existing program possibilities, and often agencies which serve the same or similar groups have not known of the existence of the other. This is largely due to an almost complete absence of coordination of programs at the local level.

7. So the CAP program was established to inform, advise, introduce agencies, achieve cooperation, and attempt to coordinate the action of all other federal-state-local programs to the fullest extent possible. Theoretically, this makes sense, particularly in the case of the manpower problem of rural youth.

8. Thus, it was not intended that all community problems be solved with community action funds only or that a community action program was to consist only of components funded by OEO. Even theoretically, it was more

the intention that the local CAP serve as the catalyst to spur investigation, cooperation, program development and coordination rather than serve as an administrator with authority to direct all action. This kind of theoretical underpinning is fraught with awe-inspiring possibilities as well as frightful responsibilities.

RURAL YOUTH MANPOWER PROGRAM FRAMEWORK

The approach to the development of a manpower program should be no different from any other and there is no single model. It may be a separately operated component or part of an overall manpower component or total CAP program. The practicality of the situation should dictate the administrative arrangement, and the questions asked to determine the practicality would normally be the same. The order of the questions would generally be somewhat as follows:

1. What is the problem?

This may be quite obvious such as excessive youth unemployment, substantial high school drop-outs, lack of trained youth, etc.

2. What is necessary to solve the problem?

It is probably best to think of a chronology of needs rather than think in terms of specific program possibilities of specific agencies at this point. It may include such things as lack of finances, transportation problems, availability of vocational training facilities, etc. On the other hand, it may be the need to develop a public facility or attract an industrial plant or some other need indirectly related to solving the manpower problem of rural youth. In searching for what needs to be contained in a manpower program to solve the problem, it is well to assess all components from recruitment of the rural youth through training to job placement.

3. What contribution to solving the problem can the local community make?

This may mean a thorough assessment of local finances, the inauguration of an industrial development program, or simply a request to an existing service agency operating in the local community to expand its services throughout the geographical area.

4. What should be the geographical coverage of the program?

Assessments up to this point may provide a ready answer. Given limited financial resources and vocational facilities, many rural communities are finding it wise to develop multi-county programs. The pooling of resources in this manner may solve part of the problem.

5. What are are remaining gaps?

6. Which agencies and programs can relate to these gaps?

Here a knowledge of all program possibilities is important and a thorough perusal is called for.

7. How can a total unified approach best be achieved?

By this time, the number of agencies and programs involved should be known and the pieces put together. The program will be much more meaningful if this step is achieved and each agency to which a request for funds is to be made is fully aware of its role in the total integrated program. Piecemeal applications result in piecemeal programs.

SOME PROGRAM SUGGESTIONS

By this time, it is clear that there is a multitude of approaches which can be used as attempted solutions to the manpower problem of rural youth. These can be fully coordinated and integrated total manpower approaches covering a large geographical area or components of an overall program. The environment of the time will probably dictate what must be done. While it is best to look at such a program totally, it may be of benefit to discuss separate components and services, any or all of which can become a part of one total program. A brief summary of possibilities follows.

1. Information Center

A great deal can be accomplished by a CAP by merely finding ways to communicate existing knowledge to youth in the area covered. This could be as simple as one person in the CAP office to handle all areas of information, of which youth opportunities would be only one phase. On the other hand, there may be a separately operated youth program with an extensive amount of special materials and aids available for an inquiring youth.

2. A Survey of Human Resources

Even the existence of an information center will mean little if no one seeks the information. Yet, throughout the nation very little is known about individuals in need specifically. This is especially true in rural areas. In total, we know that so many youth live in an area, and perhaps the census data tells us that so many are in need. Yet we have few records of the individuals specifically and have no idea singly or totally of the actual needs and potentials of the youth in the area. What is needed is more than what is commonly called recruiting for a specific program. Rather, we need a door-to-door canvas if we are to fully analyze the manpower problems of rural youth.

This must be combined with interviews, tests, counseling, etc. One approach is to employ other youth to make the call and bring the youth to the CAP or other employment center. Often VISTA volunteers can be utilized. One approach which has been very effective in rural areas is the mobile youth center. In this case a bus or trailer is turned into a laboratory in which testing, counseling, etc., can take place. As the unit goes from one community to another, it becomes the youth center for the time it is there. Often these centers have programs which relate to the parents, as well as assembly programs in some of the schools, films, and even recreation programs. All these techniques can serve to heighten the interest of youth in the community.

3. Referral Services

The key to the two previous program areas is having a good referral system. The referral can be to a program run by the CAP or to one run by another agency. It can be to a job, to a school, to a manpower training course, to the county health department, etc. If there is good coordination among all the agencies and a thorough cataloguing of youth needs and potentials, the referral phase can be a most effective bridge.

4. Vocational Training

Hopefully, there will be the requisite facilities for institutional training at least in an area vocational school. If this is not the case, there exists enough flexibility in various laws to allow for transportation to and from the nearest city, or actual movement to the city with subsistence allowances. In fact, it is not inconceivable that experiments in housing near an area vocational school could be tried. A great variety of approaches to vocational training in rural areas is possible. Some of these are:

(a) **Farm Training:** While it normally would not be practical to attempt farm training for youth, it makes a great deal of sense to attempt to improve the lot of the adults previously discussed who are trapped on the farm. If they could spend the remaining years of their life in the environment they like best and with a more decent income, it would eliminate the necessity of their sons and daughters growing up in the city slum. Thus, given the proper youth manpower program in the community, a happier solution should be the result. One such program, recently developed, included literacy education, farm management, leadership development, cultural enlightment, progressive area improvements, community opportunities and resources and supervised on-the-farm training. A large number of services are to be performed without cost to the project by the State Agricultural Extension Service.

(b) **Agricultural-Related Training:** Although the number of farms are declining, the average size is greatly increasing. Consequently, a number of jobs are developing in the broader agricultural sense. For example, a very successful program which is currently being operated in Louisiana is training former farm hands to operate and repair complicated farm equipment. The sponsor, Loyola University, has developed small motivational groups for problem solving and has a basic education component which includes history, current events, civics, basic science, consumer eduation, home and family care, and health.

One of the most unusual agricultural-related training programs was developed earlier this year by the Employment Division of OEO. This is a ranch management program which will include all subjects necessary to make the trainee an efficient ranch hand in a 12-months-a-year job. Included is everything from branding to irrigation to artificial insemination and cattle diseases. Half of the time is spent in the classroom and half on the ranch. Basic education and cultural enrichment, as well as a formal recreation program are included for the youth, all of whom live on the ranch. Food is also provided, as well as clothing and a health allowance. Most of the trainees are rural youth, although some come from Denver and one from New York City. Their backgrounds range from experience as a summer cowboy to city boys with no work experience and who have never ridden a horse. Job offers already received at the ranch are several times the number of trainees and at wage levels double the rate for seasonal employees.

By the end of 1965, the MDTA program had trained 15,000 in agricultural-related courses. In addition, the Office of Education sponsored a study in 30 states to determine new and emerging occupations related to agricul-

ture for which training may be given. Some of the training to date has included dairymen, foremen, gardeners, nurserymen, and jobs in food processing and wood processing.

In addition, if agricultural-related public employment is considered, it is estimated that there are 265,000 man-years of non-recurring work and over 1,000 man-years of annually recurring work which needs to be done in national forests. Another 10,000 to 25,000 youth could be employed in constructing multiple-use roads, campsites, picnic areas, recreation facilities, planting trees, improving timber stands, as well as the range, wildlife, soil and water. Finally, the USDA estimates that non-urban recreation activities are to increase by 62 per cent between 1960-73; this will be an increase of 400,000 jobs.

(c) **Training Rural Non-Farm Residents:** While non-farm residents can be trained for any of the positions previously mentioned, there are great numbers of jobs which are developing in the rural fringe of urban areas. A very successful program currently operating in Tennessee utilizes a one-to-one ratio of volunteers to trainees who go into basic education programs in the rural area. After 8 to 24 weeks of basic, they are placed in OJT situations for 8 to 24 weeks. All of the job placements are in rural areas or in very small rural towns.

(d) **Training for Mobile Rural Youth:** While a great number of opportunities exist for the kind of training previously discussed, it must be recognized that many rural youth must look to the urban opportunity as their best choice. This is especially true when the high school diploma has been received and aptitude for non-rural opportunities exists. In this case the urban area and a number of rural counties should be tied together in one manpower program. Also, a good basic component is a multi-occupational vocational training program. This gives the rural youth a number of alternatives such as commuting to class, moving to the city for classes, receiving training which would not be possible in the rural area (but in some cases would enable him to return to or near his home environment) and relating these to a number of educational programs. For example, not nearly enough linkage of the many OEO educational-work programs has been attempted. Over the long run it should be possible to think in terms of a chronology of manpower services to youth starting with the Job Corps, to the Neighborhood Youth Corps, to Upward Bound, to the work-study provisions for college students. A central training program for a wide geographical area could be tied to this, thereby giving additional work-training-education alternatives for those unable to follow through to college.

5. Job Development

While job development components of manpower programs vary greatly in size, the rural areas need a thorough survey of jobs. Every employer in the area, particularly the small and medium-sized ones, should be canvassed. This approach often turns up unknown jobs or employers who are willing to do their own on-the-job training. It is possible to utilize this approach, however, for a formal and extensive OJT program. (OJT programs will be discussed under a different heading.)

The job development specialist should be thoroughly familiar with the businesses of the area and be able to ascertain training needs, as well as job opportunities. Thus, in close concert with the Employment Security Office, MDTA programs can be arranged. This component should be familiar with job opportunities in nearby or other areas, in order to properly advise the more mobile rural youth.

Consequently, aids to mobility can be very much a part of a job development program. A number of possibilities are available under MDTA, and there is no reason why there cannot be a variety of mobility aids developed by OEO funded programs. It would even be well to have a formalized aid program in the city for rural youth who migrate for training or a job.

6. On-the-Job Training

As already noted, an OJT program can be part of a number of manpower components, or it is possible to develop it as a separate component. OJT is simply the training of workers while on the job. Several Titles of the Economic Opportunity Act, as well as MDTA, make such training possible. It can be used in a variety of ways to assure a fully-developed job program. It is particularly useful for those youth who do not want to return to the kind of school they attended. The program is flexible in duration, as well as in the size of companies cooperating. It is also very important to combine OJT with remedial education. No one educational approach has proved best; so much experimentation on the local level is possible.

The development of OJT requires finding suitable training positions, negotiating a rate of pay with the employer, obtaining the consent of the union in many cases, and drawing up the training contract with the employer. While, in the past, the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training has done most of this work, it is now possible for a CAP to serve as the "prime contractor" and deal directly with prospective OJT employers. The CAP sub-contracts with the employer subject to BAT review and approval.

One of the best examples of a comprehensive rural youth OJT program is the New Jersey Youth Development Program. Its primary purpose is to offer OJT in conjunction with remedial education, counseling, basic work experience and finally full-time employment. The youth worked with State agencies and received $1.25 to $1.35 per hour. Of the first 500 enrollees, 100 received full-time employment, others went into more formal OJT for service occupations, 30 went back to school, and a number entered the Job Corps, NYC, or the military.

7. Multi-County Programs

In the rural area, it is extremely important to think in terms of regions rather than small local areas. Any number of possibilities exist for CAP agencies to combine forces or for a separate regional organization to develop a manpower program which can not only contribute to problem solutions but can stimulate the development of a viable CAP program where one does not exist. The best example of this to date is in Mississippi, where the Catholic Church served as the catalyst for developing a non-profit state-wide agency. Eighteen centers cover the state as both human resources and jobs are catalogued. Basic education is taught at each center and all state agencies cooperate in referrals.

SOME POLICY SUGGESTIONS

It is extremely difficult in a limited period of time to make many specific policy recommendations. What is probably needed more is extensive use of the possibilities which already exist. Consequently, what follows are a few very general recommendations for both the local and the federal level.

1. There is a very definite need for the development of University Manpower Centers. Such centers can perform a variety of needed functions. For example, it can serve as a clearing house of information, provide valuable consulting services for program development and evaluation, and most important at the present is the training and orientation of regional and local CAP personnel. It is also possible to sub-contract difficult components to such centers and to cooperate with them in work-study programs. Fortunately, through the efforts of Dr. Sanford Kravitz, OEO has recently established four such centers, in addition to the one which is sponsoring this program today. Others will be developed by OEO, but it is always possible to work out cooperative programs with universities which have not received OEO grants for program development.

2. One of the most urgent needs on the local level is the training and orientation of your own personnel in the manpower field. The federal manpower staff in OEO is quite small and not available for such a program. Generally the regional offices do not have manpower specialists and in addition their staffs are small. While it is true that regional staffs allegedly received some orientation in manpower recently, it was not given from a background of knowledge in the field of manpower economics or with knowledge of the needs of rural areas. Consequently, the feeling of the writer is that any orientation received by regional staff worsened rather than improved the situation. Thus, it behooves a local staff even more to acquaint itself with the intricacies of manpower problems.

3. It is important for local staff to make its feelings, whether in regard to program administration or legislation known all the way to Washington. The writer has received many complaints from rural areas that cities are given preference both in regional and federal offices. This complaint, along with sound program knowledge, received of necessity in university programs, should have a proper airing.

4. Thought should be given by local CAP's as to the proper administrative home for manpower programs. There is often duplication, and federal agencies are not equally qualified in manpower. For example, time and experience might suggest that the Department of Labor would be better qualified to handle OEO manpower programs. Much of the Act is already delegated. If there is a need to use OEO funds to stimulate old line manpower agencies, it might be possible for OMPER to serve this purpose as it has already done with experimental and demonstration programs. Your experience with manpower provisions of other Acts should be added to this thinking.

5. Clearly there is a need for liberalization of the provisions of much federal legislation. For example, OEO and OMPER can often give services which are not legal for Employment Security or some HEW agencies. Particularly in the case of Employment Security, the provision and encouragement for a broader range of services should become a reality.

6. There is a need for legislation provision for funding programs designed to study the total rural vocational training needs and potentials. This should be tied in with commercial and industrial development of rural areas.

7. There is need for specific authorization for broad human resources

and job surveys in rural areas. Only in this way will the nation be fully aware of its manpower needs and possibilities.

8. While a beginning has been made in some legislation, there still remains a need for setting aside specific percentages of federal manpower funds for rural areas only. This will serve to eliminate many of the administrative and rural biases which currently exist.

In the 1966 Manpower Report of the President, the concluding remarks in President Johnson's introduction to the report were:

> A manpower policy should lead us to a society in which every person has full opportunity to develop his—or her—earning powers, where no willing worker lacks a job, and where no useful talent lacks an opportunity.

The rural youth of America is composed of many willing workers and many useful talents. Thus, it is hoped that by highlighting their problems for the past few moments, a number of rural CAP's will be better able to help rural youth achieve the full opportunity of which the President spoke.